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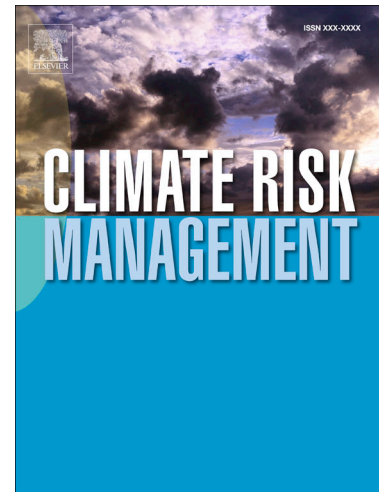
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Assessing the risk of climate change to aquaculture: a national-scale case study for the Sultanate of Oman

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Highlights

- Aquaculture is crucial for world food security yet climate change causes many risks
- We provide a framework for assessing risks from climate change to aquaculture
- Oman aims to expand aquaculture but is also in one of the hottest regions on earth
- We identify key risks to aquaculture in Oman along with adaptation options
- This aquaculture climate risk assessment is readily applicable to any other country

29 **Abstract**

30 Aquaculture is expanding globally and is an increasingly important component of world food
31 security. However, climate change can impact aquaculture through a variety of mechanisms varying
32 by location and aquaculture type with implications for future productivity. Understanding the risks
33 that climate change poses on different culture systems in different locations is important to enable
34 the design of targeted adaptation and resilience building actions.

35 Here we present an aquaculture climate risk assessment framework, applied to the aquaculture
36 sector of the Sultanate of Oman, that identifies the sensitivity and exposure of different components
37 of the sector to climate change risk.

38 Oman has aspirations to significantly expand aquaculture over the next decade focussing on coastal
39 shrimp ponds, finfish sea cages, land-based recirculating aquaculture systems, and ponds and
40 raceways. We quantify overall climate risk as the combination of four risks: (1) species' temperature
41 sensitivity, (2) flooding and storm surge exposure, (3) low-oxygen hazard and (4) disease
42 vulnerability. Shrimp culture is identified as highest risk due to high exposure of shrimp ponds to
43 flooding and storm surges, and high disease vulnerability. Seabream cage farming also faces high risk
44 due to high thermal sensitivity and high potential of low-oxygen levels affecting sea cages. Following
45 the risk assessment a stakeholder workshop was conducted to identify targeted adaptation
46 measures for the different components of the sector. The framework for assessing climate risk to
47 aquaculture demonstrated here is equally applicable at the regional, national or sub-national scale
48 to support design of targeted resilience building actions and enhance food security.

49

50 **Key words:** climate adaptation – aquaculture – climate resilience – climate risk assessment – food
51 security – Sultanate of Oman – seabream culture – shrimp culture

52 1. Introduction

53 Aquaculture is a rapidly expanding component of global food security, and in 2018 overtook wild
54 harvest fisheries in its contribution to global human food supply (FAO, 2020). This importance is
55 expected to significantly grow over the coming decades as the world population, and prevalence of
56 seafood in people's diets, continue to rise (Troell et al., 2014; Jennings et al., 2016; Shepon et al.,
57 2021). This is particularly so as global aquaculture output has consistently grown over the last 20
58 years (Little et al., 2016; FAO, 2020) whilst wild harvest fisheries show little opportunity for
59 expansion with over 90% of stocks considered either maximally sustainably fished, or overfished
60 (60% and 34% respectively; FAO 2020). Aquaculture of marine species is an important part of total
61 aquaculture production, accounting for over 50% of global aquaculture production by weight, albeit
62 comprising a smaller contribution to total human food production from aquaculture (FAO, 2020).

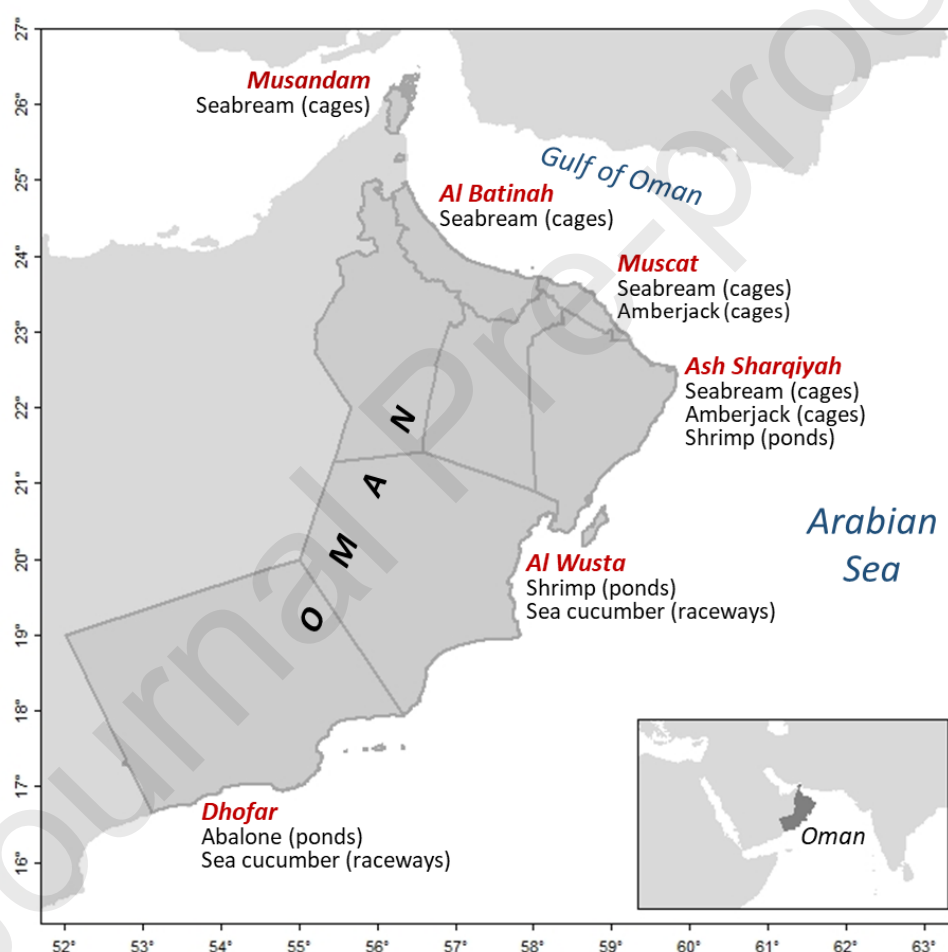
63 Beyond food security, aquaculture also plays an increasingly important role in the livelihoods,
64 employment and economic development of many communities especially in developing countries; in
65 2018 over 20 million people were engaged in the sector globally (FAO, 2020). However although
66 growing in importance for world food security and economic development, aquaculture is
67 susceptible to climate change (Callaway et al., 2012; Soto et al., 2018; Poulain et al., 2018; Pernet
68 and Browman, 2021). So it is important to assess the risks and challenges that climate change poses
69 to aquaculture in order to implement targeted adaptation and resilience building actions to
70 safeguard future productivity.

71 Climate change is impacting on world aquaculture in multiple ways (Callaway et al., 2012; Gubbins et
72 al., 2013; Soto et al., 2018). Although rising water temperatures can benefit growth rates of some
73 species, this may also push species beyond their thermal limits; hot summers can lead to heat stress,
74 notably for cold-water species that include some of the world's most important aquaculture species
75 (Gubbins et al., 2013). Low-oxygen levels (hypoxia) are becoming more common and may cause 'fish
76 kills' especially where fish are reared in dense conditions as in sea pens (Araújo-Luna et al., 2018).
77 Rising sea levels combined with increasing storminess (Walsh et al., 2017; Sainsbury et al., 2021) are
78 exacerbating the risk of storm surges that can affect coastal culture systems and infrastructure.
79 Disease outbreaks are a major risk factor affecting global aquaculture production (Stentiford et al.,
80 2021) and warming increases chances of outbreaks (Leung and Bates, 2013; Burge et al., 2014).
81 Ocean acidification can be detrimental for mollusc spat-fall making natural seeding of mollusc farms
82 less efficient; and warmer waters may facilitate the establishment of invasive species in new areas
83 (Gubbins et al., 2013). While climate change may also create opportunities (Bergh et al., 2007), on
84 balance there could be serious repercussions to the aquaculture sectors of many countries, and the
85 risks could be widely different depending on culture type and location (Pernet and Browman, 2021)
86 with warmer countries likely to be impacted more (Soto et al., 2018).

87 In the Sultanate of Oman the aquaculture sector is at an early stage of development with
88 commercial production having grown modestly from 13 t in 1998 to 450 t in 2018 (FAO, 2018).
89 However, the sector has been identified for major expansion within Oman's national economic
90 diversification programme to support economic development and food security in decades to come
91 (MAFW, 2019). The national economic development programme lays out the objective to expand
92 aquaculture production to over 200,000 t per year, generating over US\$ 500 million annually by the
93 end of the decade based on a major governmental and private sector investment programme of
94 over US\$ 1.5 billion (MAFW, 2019; Peeler and Scott 2018; Table 1). Furthermore, aquaculture could
95 help reduce pressure on wild stocks (Al-Rashdi et al., 2011), and enable restocking of locally
96 overexploited sea cucumber and abalone populations (Al-Rashdi and Iwao, 2008; Al-Rashdi et al.,
97 2019). The government plans for development of the aquaculture sector focus on coastal shrimp

98 ponds, finfish sea cages especially for seabream, recirculating aquaculture systems (RAS) for
 99 groupers and salmon, and ponds and raceways for sea cucumber and the endemic abalone *Haliotis*
 100 *mariae* (MAFW, 2019; and see Figure 1).

101 However, Oman is situated in one of the hottest regions on earth, and climate change is
 102 progressively developing in the north-western Indian Ocean and Arabian Gulf at the same time as
 103 the development of Oman's aquaculture sector (Piontkovski and Al-Oufi, 2015; Piontkovsky and
 104 Queste, 2016; Noori et al., 2019; ROPME, 2020). The primary impacts in the region that could affect
 105 aquaculture are increasing sea temperatures, large-scale hypoxia events, and increases in cyclones
 106 and storm surges (ROPME, 2021). Due to the major expansion planned for aquaculture in Oman,
 107 evaluating the nature of these risks to the different components of the sector is necessary to inform
 108 design of targeted adaptation and resilience actions to safeguard future production and investments
 109 in the sector.



110

111 **Figure 1.** Map of the Sultanate of Oman showing the six coastal governorates assessed here. For each
 112 governorate (red font) the most important current or planned types of aquaculture are indicated. For some
 113 planned culture types (RAS, oyster culture) no information on designated sites was available. Inset map shows
 114 location of Oman within the wider region.

115 This study presents a climate risk assessment (CRA) of the aquaculture sector of Oman. It builds on
 116 the CRA introduced by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change in 2014 as a means for
 117 quantifying climate change risks to linked ecological-economic systems (IPCC, 2104). This is a
 118 modified version of the earlier, climate vulnerability assessment (CVA) framework originally

119 introduced in 2001 (IPCC, 2001), where 'climate vulnerability' is quantified based on the
120 combination of exposure, sensitivity and adaptive capacity. In the revised CRA framework –
121 developed to better capture risk and (actionable) risk management, and removing focus from
122 vulnerability – climate risk is quantified as the combination of hazard, exposure or sensitivity, and
123 vulnerability. This identification of the main sources of risk, and how these differ between sectors,
124 communities or regions, allows for informed decisions on actions to reduce risk and build resilience
125 to climate change (Poulain et al., 2018).

126 For wild capture fisheries, several studies on climate risk have been carried out using either the CVA
127 or CRA frameworks at the global and regional scale (e.g. Allison et al., 2009; Monnereau et al., 2017),
128 or as small-scale, localised studies (e.g. Pinnegar et al., 2019). In contrast, for aquaculture few
129 climate risk assessments have been conducted (but for a global, country-level comparison, see
130 Handisyde et al., 2017). This may be because aquaculture is seen as less immediately impacted by
131 weather, climate, and external environmental fluctuations than fisheries. Nevertheless, the world's
132 growing reliance on aquaculture for food security and the manifold potential impacts of climate
133 change on aquaculture necessitate an equal focus for the application of CRAs to aquaculture. There
134 is clearly an urgent need for a simple framework that could be rolled out at multiple scales from
135 individual farms to global regions, drawing on international best practice (Poulain et al., 2018).

136 Here we develop and apply an aquaculture climate risk assessment at a national scale to the
137 developing aquaculture sector in Oman. We define overall climate risk as the combination of four
138 primary components of climate risk that have been identified for the aquaculture sector in Oman.
139 The risk components are assessed for each of the major currently cultured species and for the key
140 candidate species being considered for future development; where possible, risks are evaluated
141 spatially across Oman's coastal governorates. The purpose of this study is identification of the key
142 climate risks to support design and prioritisation of adaptation actions aimed at reducing,
143 anticipating, or mitigating the potential challenges from climate change.

144

145

146 2. Methods

147 2.1. Overall approach

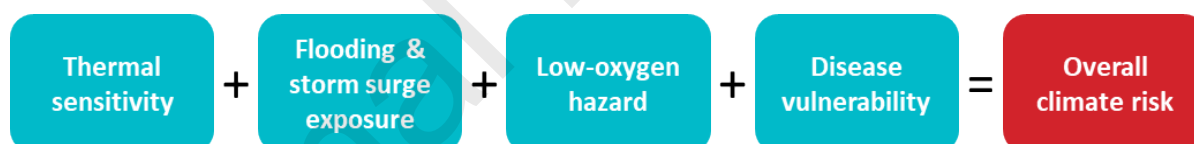
148 As aquaculture in Oman is in an early stage of development, this CRA was based on expectations of
 149 future development in the sector. It takes account of aspirations to grow the industry rapidly to a
 150 regionally leading position (MAFW, 2019), both from a socio-economic perspective to generate
 151 revenue and enhance food security, and from an environmentally sustainable perspective. While a
 152 growing body of research on Omani aquaculture exists (e.g. Al-Rashdi and Iwao 2008; Al-Rashdi et al.
 153 2011, 2018), including on disease risk (Peeler and Scott 2018), the focus here is on risk factors known
 154 to be associated with climate change.

155 In this CRA, the calculation of climate risk for aquaculture is based on four components:

- 156 (1) *Thermal sensitivity*, which compares the optimum growing temperatures of different species
 157 cultured, in relation to average sea temperatures characterising each governorate;
- 158 (2) *Flooding and storm surge exposure*, the vulnerability to coastal flooding and storm surge of
 159 different culture types in different governorates;
- 160 (3) *Low-oxygen hazard*, associated with the likelihood of cultured species being exposed to low-
 161 oxygen water conditions, taking into account the culture methods; and
- 162 (4) *Disease vulnerability*, potential exposure to significant diseases (based on the number of
 163 diseases of concern reported for each species and the culture method used).

164 For each component, the risk index is calculated based on the sensitivity of each species cultured to
 165 the risk factor and the expected exposure to the risk in each governorate. A measure of *overall*
 166 *climate risk* – by species and governorate – is then calculated as the unweighted mean of the four
 167 components (Figure 2).

168



169

170 **Figure 2.** The four components of risk used in the present CRA which combine to form overall climate risk to
 171 aquaculture in Oman.

172 The outputs of the risk assessment were then presented in a stakeholder workshop and used as the
 173 basis for designing practical adaptation actions.

174 2.2. Selection of species

175 The species included were derived from Peeler and Scott (2018) who compiled information on
 176 planned developments of aquaculture for different species in Oman. Table 1 summarises the species
 177 included, along with their expected potential for development within the aquaculture sector of
 178 Oman, the main culture systems, and the governorates where these are either produced or are
 179 foreseen to be produced.

180

181 **Table 1.** Overview of species included based on current and potential future importance for Oman
 182 aquaculture, including information on current or proposed culture type and projected production (based on
 183 Peeler and Scott 2018; supplementary data for cobia taken from Prins 2015). Price per kg and projected value
 184 are expressed in 2018-US\$ and based on mean global aquaculture price (from FAO Fisheries and Aquaculture
 185 Statistics). Projected value by 2023 is based on projected production (Peeler and Scott 2018). Figures on future
 186 production should only be seen as indicative of proposed future development.

Species group	Species	Type of culture	Projected production (t)	Price/kg (US\$)	Projected value (US\$)	Regions
Seabreams	Gilthead seabream <i>Sparus aurata</i>	Marine cages; RAS	15500	\$4.73	\$143,500,000	Musandam, Muscat, Ash Sharqiyah
	Sobaity seabream <i>Sparidentex hasta</i>			\$13.25		Musandam, Muscat, Ash Sharqiyah
	Goldlined seabream <i>Rhabdosargus sarba</i>			\$9.79		Musandam, Muscat, Ash Sharqiyah
Groupers	Yellowfin hind (grouper) <i>Cephalopholis hemistiktos</i>	RAS	9000	\$18.59	\$167,300,000	not specified
	Greasy grouper <i>Epinephelus tauvina</i>			\$18.59		not specified
Asian seabass	Asian seabass (Barramundi) <i>Lates calcarifer</i>	Marine cages	2500	\$4.52	\$11,300,000	not specified
Amberjacks	Japanese amberjack <i>Seriola quinqueradiata</i>	Marine cages	2000	\$7.77	\$19,660,000	Muscat, Ash Sharqiyah, Al Wusta
	Greater amberjack <i>Seriola dumerili</i>			\$9.10		Muscat, Ash Sharqiyah, Al Wusta
	Yellowtail amberjack <i>Seriola lalandi</i>			\$12.62		Muscat, Sharqiyah, Al Wusta
Cobia	Cobia <i>Rachycentron canadum</i>	Marine cages		\$2.83		not specified
Red snapper	Red snapper (Hamra) <i>Lutjanus malabaricus</i>	Marine cages	100	\$6.62	\$662,000	not specified
Pompano	Scubnose pompano <i>Trachinotus blochii</i>	Marine cages	100	\$4.77	\$477,000	not specified
Atlantic salmon	Atlantic salmon <i>Salmo salar</i>	RAS	20000	\$7.07	\$141,400,000	not specified
Shrimp	Indian white prawn <i>Penaeus indicus</i>	Shrimp ponds	130000	\$4.92	\$840,700,000	Ash Sharqiyah, Al Wusta
	Whiteleg shrimp <i>Penaeus vannamei</i>			\$6.09		Ash Sharqiyah, Al Wusta
	Giant tiger prawn <i>Penaeus monodon</i>			\$8.39		Ash Sharqiyah, Al Wusta
Abalone	Oman abalone <i>Haliotis mariae</i>	RAS and restocking	2000	\$11.30	\$22,600,000	Dhofar
Oyster	Hooded oyster <i>Saccostrea cucullata</i>			\$10.31		not specified
	Mangrove cupped oyster <i>Crassostrea rhizophorae</i>			\$1.00		not specified
Sea cucumber	Sandfish sea cucumber <i>Holothuria scabra</i>	Marine ponds and raceways restocking	2000	\$5.27	\$10,540,000	Al Wusta

187

188 **2.3. Sensitivity to thermal stress**

189 For each species, the sensitivity to thermal stress from climate change was assessed. In the study
 190 area, sea temperatures are already high compared to most species' observed temperature tolerance
 191 ranges in the wild (cf. Cheung et al., 2013), and are expected to rise further. In this analysis, thermal
 192 sensitivity takes account of species' upper temperature tolerance ranges, in relation to sea
 193 temperatures characterising each governorate.

194 Information on species' temperature preferences was taken from Aquamaps (accessed July–
 195 September 2020), where modelled 'native range data' for species were collated
 196 (www.aquamaps.org; Kaschner et al., 2016). This is based on long-term annual mean sea
 197 temperature for all half-degree latitude–longitude grid cells, where a given species has been
 198 "observed" according to OBIS or GBIF species occurrence records. Where multiple modelled maps
 199 were available for a species in Aquamaps, the most recent update was selected. To describe the
 200 species' upper temperature tolerance, data on their 'maximum preferred temperature' (TP90) were
 201 downloaded (following Pinnegar et al., 2019). TP90 is defined as the 90th percentile temperature,
 202 based on sea surface temperatures in the observed distribution range of the species in the wild.
 203 Thus, for a given species' wild population, it may be assumed that 90% of individuals occur in areas
 204 with annual mean sea temperatures below TP90.

205 We then combined each species' TP90 with annual mean sea surface temperature (SST) data for the
 206 waters adjacent to each governorate, to calculate the 'thermal safety margin' (TSM: see Payne et al.,
 207 2021) within that region, as the difference between TP90 and SST. If TSM is positive, the species'
 208 maximum preferred temperature is higher than the mean annual SST, indicating the species is
 209 unlikely to suffer substantially from thermal stress if held under ambient conditions. If TSM is
 210 negative, mean ambient temperatures in the governorate are beyond the species' optimal thermal
 211 tolerance ranges; if held under ambient conditions these species are likely to be at risk of thermal
 212 stress particularly during the warmer season(s).

213 **2.4. Exposure to flooding and storm surge**

214 For each species and per governorate, a measure of exposure to coastal flooding and storm surge
 215 was calculated, associated with sea level rise and tropical cyclones. This took account of both
 216 inherent differences between culture types in exposure to flooding, and of topological differences
 217 between governorates (Fritz et al., 2010; Al-Buloshi et al., 2014; Hereher et al., 2020).

218 Firstly, for each species a *sensitivity score to flooding and storm surge* was defined as 1 (low), 2
 219 (medium) or 3 (high), based on culture type and biological characteristics. Species typically reared in
 220 floating sea cages were scored as having 'low' sensitivity as these facilities are not directly impacted
 221 by flooding or coastal inundation (although extreme weather could lead to losses particularly if
 222 cages are inadequately engineered). Species cultured in ponds or raceways (e.g. shrimps, sea
 223 cucumbers), often located in low-lying terrain close to the sea and prone to inundation, were scored
 224 as having 'high' sensitivity. Species reared in RAS were scored as having 'medium' sensitivity as these
 225 are typically connected with coastal areas.

226 Secondly, for each coastal governorate a *flooding hazard score* was calculated, using the area (per
 227 km coastline) predicted to be flooded if mean sea level rises by 0.2 m; this was based on Al-Buloshi
 228 et al. (2014) who simulated impacts of climate change-related sea level rise and coastal flooding on
 229 Oman. For each species and per governorate, *exposure to flooding and storm surge* was then
 230 calculated as cultured species' *sensitivity to flooding* x governorates' *flood hazard*.

231 **2.5. Hazard from low-oxygen levels**

232 Given Oman's proximity to the world's largest, naturally occurring marine low-oxygen zone (Acharya
 233 and Panigrahi, 2016), the potential for low-oxygen levels in seawater is seen as an important risk
 234 factor to the sector. Prevalence of hypoxia in the Arabian Sea has increased since the 1970s
 235 (Piontkovski and Al-Oufi 2015; Piontkovski and Queste, 2016; Queste et al., 2018), a trend expected
 236 to continue with warming. For each aquaculture species and per governorate, a measure of *hazard*
 237 *from low-oxygen levels* was scored, associated with the likelihood of cultured species being exposed
 238 to low-oxygen water conditions in particular areas, taking into account the culture methods.

239 Firstly, for each species *sensitivity to low-oxygen conditions* was scored, considered highest (score 3)
 240 in fast-swimming fishes (e.g. seabream, seabass) with high oxygen demands, and lowest in sessile
 241 species such as oysters which have lower oxygen demands (score 1). Furthermore, the type of
 242 culture is also of relevance and was here included in 'species sensitivity'; fish held under fully
 243 controlled RAS are unlikely to be impacted (score 1), whereas species held in sea cages would be
 244 directly impacted by low-oxygen seawater and may suffer extensive mortalities. Species where re-
 245 stocking takes place (abalone, sea cucumber) are considered to have intermediate sensitivity (score
 246 2), and likewise salmon, which although planned to be held in RAS, have high oxygen requirements.

247 Secondly, each governorate was rated a *low-oxygen hazard* score. In southern governorates coastal
 248 ecosystems are subject to extensive seasonal upwelling during the summer monsoon, and oxygen
 249 levels may drop substantially. Hypoxic conditions are less likely further north (such as in Ash
 250 Sharqiyah) and are rare (albeit not fully absent) in the northernmost governorates (Piontkovski and
 251 Al-Oufi 2015; Piontkovski and Queste, 2016). Reflecting these differences, governorates' low-oxygen
 252 hazard was scored between 1 (lowest) and 4 (highest). For each species and per governorate, the
 253 overall *hazard from low-oxygen levels* was then calculated as species' *low-oxygen sensitivity* x
 254 governorates' *low-oxygen hazard*.

255 **2.6. Vulnerability to disease**

256 Globally, diseases are a primary driver of successes or losses in aquaculture, with the FAO estimating
 257 least US\$ 6 billion in annual losses from aquaculture yield (Jennings et al., 2016). Certain diseases are
 258 particularly prominent: white spot disease in shrimp has caused losses exceeding \$1 billion per
 259 annum since the 1990s (Stentiford et al., 2012). Emergent issues include microsporidiosis in
 260 seabream which can stunt growth, with limited scope for treatment (Palenzuela et al. 2014). Disease
 261 risk is incorporated into this CRA as it may increase with climate change due to two factors. First, in a
 262 warming world the geographic distribution of diseases in the wild may change, leading to farmed
 263 species being exposing to new diseases. Second, if farmed animals become thermally stressed they
 264 can become immunocompromised and more susceptible to disease.

265 Our analysis draws on the list of fish, molluscan and crustacean diseases considered high priority risk
 266 factors in Oman and recommended for surveillance and listing in national legislation (Table 3 in
 267 Peeler and Scott, 2018). Their list combines information on the expected level of production of
 268 aquaculture species in Oman, with information on aquatic animal diseases per species as listed by
 269 the World Organisation for Animal Health (OIE, formerly Office International des Epizooties).

270 In the present analysis, proxies for *disease-related vulnerability* for Oman aquaculture species were
 271 calculated as the average of three separate risk factors. These included, firstly, the total number of
 272 OIE listed aquatic diseases per species (Peeler and Scott, 2018), including viral, bacterial and fungal
 273 diseases. We regard this as a useful indicator of the breadth of disease risk but caution against its
 274 over-interpretation, its inclusion is warranted on pragmatic grounds. The second disease risk factor

275 relates to the origin of broodstock (following Doubleday et al., 2013), and is ranked 1 if all
276 aquaculture stock is derived from local broodstock (and hence the risk of pathogen import is low); 2
277 if derived from a combination of local and imported broodstock; and 3 if fully derived from imported
278 broodstock (and hence the risk of pathogen import is high). The third risk factor is based on
279 concentration of production, where having multiple, spatially separated farms as opposed to a single
280 farm is seen as lower risk to overall production (Peeler and Scott, 2018). This risk factor was also
281 ranked 1 to 3 (1, production expected over at least 5 farms, hence low risk; 2, production in 2-4
282 farms, hence medium risk; 3, concentrated in a single farm, hence high risk).

283 **2.7. Overall climate risk**

284 Our assessment of *overall climate risk* to Oman aquaculture species in each of the coastal
285 governorates combines the above four risk components. Of these, information for three
286 components – (1) thermal sensitivity, (2) exposure to flooding and storm surge, and (3) low-oxygen
287 hazard – is spatially disaggregated by governorate. In the case of (4) disease vulnerability, a single
288 risk metric across all governorates is available per species. Following several other climate risk
289 analyses (e.g., Monnereau et al., 2017; Pinnegar et al., 2019; Payne et al., 2021), the values for each
290 of the four risk components were re-scaled between 0 and 1 (from lowest to highest risk). Following
291 re-scaling, the *overall climate risk* (per species, per governorate) was then calculated as the
292 unweighted mean of the four components.

293 **2.8. Stakeholder workshop aimed at identifying adaptation options**

294 The purpose of this paper is to present the risk assessment framework, but the outputs were then
295 presented at an online stakeholder workshop to identify potential priority adaptation actions for the
296 aquaculture sector of Oman. The workshop was held on 8–9 December 2020, with 21 participants
297 selected from across government, science, and the seafood sector, as recommended by officers
298 within the Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Water Resources. Insights from workshop
299 participants were used to validate the results and help identify priority adaptation actions, making
300 use of the framework of the FAO 'climate adaptation toolbox' (Poulain et al., 2018; FAO, 2019).
301 Accordingly, *preventative* adaptation options were identified aimed at *reducing the risk of impacts*
302 *from* climate change, i.e. at preventing the event from happening; and *mitigative* adaptation options
303 aimed at *reducing or mitigating the consequences* if an event were to happen.

304 3. Results

305 3.1. Thermal sensitivity

306 The 19 aquaculture species that may be farmed in ambient conditions differ widely in maximum
307 preferred temperatures (TP90), ranging from 21.44°C in gilthead seabream to 29.77°C in yellowfin
308 hind (Table 2). Between Oman's coastal governorates, there is also variation in SST, which averaged
309 over the year is warmer in northern than southern coastal sea areas. In combination, species
310 differences in TP90 and spatial differences in SST are reflected in thermal safety margins for
311 candidate species that vary considerably, from positive (ambient SST < species' TP90, i.e. low
312 thermal stress; shaded blue in Table 2) to highly negative (ambient SST > species' TP90, i.e. high
313 thermal stress; shaded red).

314 Atlantic salmon have a very low maximum preferred temperature (12.77°C) compared to ambient
315 conditions in Oman however the plans are to grow salmon in fully enclosed refrigerated RAS. In this
316 case, the thermal risk factor is not included in further analysis of climate risk.

317 Among the species reared under ambient conditions in Oman, gilthead seabream has negative
318 thermal safety margins in all governorates and particularly in the north, indicating thermally stressful
319 conditions for this species which is not endemic to Oman. Despite this, it is currently cultured
320 commercially in marine cages in Muscat Governorate, with further developments planned across
321 multiple governorates. By contrast, two seabream species indigenous to Omani waters so far only
322 cage-cultured at minor scale – goldlined and sobaity seabream (both TP90 >28°C) – show thermal
323 safety margins that may be considered in line with ambient conditions for Oman (especially in Ash
324 Sharqiyah, and further south), indicating low risk of thermal stress if cultured.

325 Thermal risk is assessed as low for barramundi, cobia, red snapper or pompano held in ambient-
326 temperature cage culture. Of three amberjack species considered, two – yellowtail and greater
327 amberjack – are found at low thermal risk, with thermal safety margins either positive or close to
328 zero. However, Japanese amberjack is at fairly high thermal risk if held in ambient-temperature
329 cages. While yellowfin hind and greasy grouper would be held in controlled RAS not exposed to
330 ambient temperature conditions as in sea cages, both are within natural temperature conditions in
331 Omani waters.

332 Each of the three shrimp species considered have high TP90 (>29°C) with positive thermal safety
333 margins for all governorates indicating low risk of thermal stress, in particular for Ash Sharqiyah and
334 Al Wusta where production is planned. For Oman abalone, ambient conditions in Dhofar (where
335 currently cultured) are within the species' thermal preferences; this is also the case for sand fish sea
336 cucumber in Al Wusta (where production takes place).

337

338 **Table 2.** Risk from *thermal sensitivity*. The ‘maximum preferred temperatures’ (TP90) for 20 target or
 339 candidate aquaculture species in Oman, as well as – shown separately for each governorate – the ‘thermal
 340 safety margins.’ Annual mean SST for coastal waters adjacent to each governorate is indicated (bottom of
 341 table). Thermal safety margins are defined as the difference between a species’ TP90 and governorate’s SST, in
 342 °C (TP90 – SST), colour-coded from blue to red (low to high risk). Figures in bold indicate actual or planned
 343 developments. *Note:* for Atlantic salmon, which in Oman is planned to be cultured in fully temperature-
 344 controlled RAS, thermal sensitivity margins are shown but no risk-based colour-shading applied.

Species group	Species	Maximum preferred temperature (TP90, °C)	Species' thermal sensitivity margin by governorate (annual mean SST in °C above TP90)					
			Musan-dam	Al Batinah	Muscat	Ash Sharqiyah	Al Wusta	Dhofar
Seabreams	Gilthead seabream <i>Sparus aurata</i>	21.44	-7.42	-7.31	-7.18	-5.66	-4.96	-5.57
	Sobaity seabream <i>Sparidentex hasta</i>	28.24	-0.62	-0.51	-0.38	1.14	1.84	1.23
	Goldlined seabream <i>Rhabdosargus sarba</i>	28.43	-0.43	-0.32	-0.19	1.33	2.03	1.42
Groupers	Yellowfin hind (grouper) <i>Cephalopholis hemistiktos</i>	29.77	0.91	1.02	1.15	2.67	3.37	2.76
	Greasy grouper <i>Epinephelus tauvina</i>	29.15	0.29	0.40	0.53	2.05	2.75	2.14
Asian seabass	Asian seabass <i>Lates calcarifer</i>	28.89	0.03	0.14	0.27	1.79	2.49	1.88
Amber-jacks	Japanese amberjack <i>Seriola quinqueradiata</i>	24.73	-4.13	-4.02	-3.89	-2.37	-1.67	-2.28
	Greater amberjack <i>Seriola dumerili</i>	28.23	-0.63	-0.52	-0.39	1.13	1.83	1.22
	Yellowtail amberjack <i>Seriola lalandi</i>	27.79	-1.07	-0.96	-0.83	0.69	1.39	0.78
Cobia	Cobia <i>Rachycentron canadum</i>	28.77	-0.09	0.02	0.15	1.67	2.37	1.76
Red snapper	Red snapper <i>Lutjanus malabaricus</i>	28.84	-0.02	0.09	0.22	1.74	2.44	1.83
Pompano	Scubnose pompano <i>Trachinotus blochii</i>	29.12	0.26	0.37	0.50	2.02	2.72	2.11
Atlantic salmon	Atlantic salmon <i>Salmo salar</i>	12.77	(-16.09)	(-15.98)	(-15.85)	(-14.33)	(-13.63)	(-14.24)
Shrimp	Indian white prawn <i>Penaeus indicus</i>	29.18	0.32	0.43	0.56	2.08	2.78	2.17
	Whiteleg shrimp <i>Penaeus vannamei</i>	29.08	0.22	0.33	0.46	1.98	2.68	2.07
	Giant tiger prawn <i>Penaeus monodon</i>	29.10	0.24	0.35	0.48	2.00	2.70	2.09
Abalone	Oman abalone <i>Haliotis mariae</i>	27.50	-1.36	-1.25	-1.12	0.40	1.10	0.49
Oyster	Hooded oyster <i>Saccostrea cucullata</i>	29.12	0.26	0.37	0.50	2.02	2.72	2.11
	Mangrove cupped oyster <i>Crassostrea rhizophorae</i>	28.19	-0.67	-0.56	-0.43	1.09	1.79	1.18
Sea cucumber	Sandfish sea cucumber <i>Holothuria scabra</i>	29.27	0.41	0.52	0.65	2.17	2.87	2.26
Annual mean SST by governorate (°C)			28.86	28.75	28.62	27.10	26.40	27.01

345

346 **3.2. Exposure to flooding and storm surge**

347 Shrimp culture is assessed as being at high risk from sea level rise and flooding (Table 3), particularly
 348 in Al Batinah, Muscat and Ash Sharqiyah – the latter governorate important for current shrimp
 349 production. For Al Wusta, where production is also envisaged, the exposure scores are not as high,
 350 noting however that within this governorate, suitable locations for shrimp ponds would likely be in
 351 low-lying areas, hence more prone to flooding. Exposure to flooding and storm surge is, likewise,
 352 high for sea cucumbers owing to the culture in coastal raceways, typically in low-lying terrain.

353 Flooding exposure is assessed as intermediate for groupers and Atlantic salmon cultured in RAS
 354 facilities, which have controlled environmental conditions but typically are located in coastal zones.

355 This risk factor is low for species farmed in floating sea cages (seabreams, amberjacks, Asian seabass;
 356 Table 3), and for the northern governorate of Musandam; the steep coastal topography and many
 357 deep sheltered bays (khawrs) appear to render Oman's northernmost governorate least susceptible
 358 to losses from this hazard.

359

360 **Table 3.** Relative exposure to *flooding and storm surge*, assessed for Oman key aquaculture species or species
 361 groups by governorate. For each species, *sensitivity to flooding* is scored (1 low, 3 high) based on culture type
 362 and biological characteristics. For each governorate, *flooding hazard* is scored (bottom row) based on the area
 363 predicted to be flooded if mean sea level rises by 0.2 m (Al-Buloshi et al., 2014) per km of coastline. Relative
 364 exposure per species and governorate is then calculated as *sensitivity x hazard*. Colour-shading indicates low
 365 (light) to high exposure (dark red). Figures in bold indicate actual or planned developments.

Species or species group	Sensitivity to flooding	Species' relative exposure by governorate					
		Musandam	Al Batinah	Muscat	Ash Sharqiyah	Al Wusta	Dhofar
Seabreams	1	0.07	0.25	0.26	0.25	0.18	0.05
Groupers	2	0.14	0.50	0.51	0.50	0.36	0.10
Asian seabass	1	0.07	0.25	0.26	0.25	0.18	0.05
Amberjacks	1	0.07	0.25	0.26	0.25	0.18	0.05
Cobia	1	0.07	0.25	0.26	0.25	0.18	0.05
Red snapper	1	0.07	0.25	0.26	0.25	0.18	0.05
Pompano	1	0.07	0.25	0.26	0.25	0.18	0.05
Atlantic salmon	2	0.14	0.50	0.51	0.50	0.36	0.10
Shrimp	3	0.21	0.75	0.77	0.75	0.54	0.14
Oman abalone	2	0.14	0.50	0.51	0.50	0.36	0.10
Oysters	1	0.07	0.25	0.26	0.25	0.18	0.05
Sea cucumber	3	0.21	0.75	0.77	0.75	0.54	0.14
Inundated area (km²) with sea level rise 0.2 m		35	60	50	120	105	25
Coastline (km)		495	241	196	480	584	523
Flooding hazard: inundated area (km²) per km of coastline with sea level rise 0.2 m		0.07	0.25	0.26	0.25	0.18	0.05

366

367

368 **3.3. Hazard from low-oxygen levels**

369 The hazard from low-oxygen levels in sea water was assessed as greatest (score 12 on scale 1–12) for
 370 fish species cultured in marine cages (seabreams, amberjacks, seabass, cobia), especially in southern
 371 governorates (Al Wusta, Dhofar) with coastal waters more likely to be impacted from hypoxic
 372 conditions (Table 4). However, most production for these species is envisaged further north where
 373 this risk factor is lower.

374 Low-oxygen hazard is assessed as intermediate (score 8) for abalone and sea cucumber in Dhofar
 375 and Al Wusta and would potentially impact these after restocking into the wild. This hazard is
 376 assessed as minor for shrimp as these are reared in very shallow coastal ponds that can be aerated,
 377 and likewise as minor for oysters owing to the low oxygen demands associated with sessile life style
 378 (Table 4). For groupers reared in RAS, low-oxygen hazard is assessed as low owing to the controlled
 379 conditions, whereas for Atlantic salmon reared in RAS this hazard is assessed as intermediate owing
 380 to the active-swimming behaviour and associated high oxygen demands.

381

382 **Table 4.** Relative hazard from *low-oxygen levels in seawater*, assessed for Oman key aquaculture species or
 383 species groups by governorate. For each species, *sensitivity to low-oxygen risk* is scored (1 low, 3 high) based
 384 on culture type and biological characteristics. For each governorate, *low-oxygen hazard* is scored (1 low, 4
 385 high), based on geographical patterns in duration and intensity of low-oxygen conditions linked to the Arabian
 386 Sea oxygen minimum zone (Acharya and Panigrahi, 2016; Piontkovski and Queste, 2016; Queste et al., 2018).
 387 Relative hazard per species and governorate is then calculated as *sensitivity x hazard*. Colour-shading indicates
 388 low (light) to high hazard (dark red).

Species or species group	Sensitivity to low-oxygen risk	Species' relative hazard by governorate					
		Musandam	Al Batinah	Muscat	Ash Sharqiyah	Al Wusta	Dhofar
Seabreams	3	3	3	6	9	12	12
Groupers	1	1	1	2	3	4	4
Asian seabass	3	3	3	6	9	12	12
Amberjacks	3	3	3	6	9	12	12
Cobia	3	3	3	6	9	12	12
Red snapper	3	3	3	6	9	12	12
Pompano	3	3	3	6	9	12	12
Atlantic salmon	2	2	2	4	6	8	8
Shrimp	1	1	1	2	3	4	4
Oman abalone	2	2	2	4	6	8	8
Oysters	1	1	1	2	3	4	4
Sea cucumber	2	2	2	4	6	8	8
Low-oxygen hazard by governorate		1	1	2	3	4	4

389

390 3.4. Vulnerability to disease

391 The culture type ranking highest for disease vulnerability, was shrimp. This reflects the large number
392 (9) of OIE listed diseases for *Penaeus vannamei* and *P. monodon*. For the local, endemic species *P.*
393 *indicus* only 1 disease type is listed, but this might reflect that it has been researched much less
394 intensively than the two other widely cultivated species. In particular, *P. indicus* is listed as being
395 susceptible to white spot disease – by far the most important shrimp disease in Asia (see
396 Supplementary Table S1). In pond culture, where seawater is brought in, it is difficult to fully exclude
397 disease from ponds; barriers or filters can be incorporated but completely excluding disease vectors
398 remains challenging. Moreover, partial import of shrimp broodstock will likely be required to
399 supplement local broodstock (Peeler and Scott, 2018) further adding to disease vulnerability.

400 For the three amberjack species (2 OIE listed diseases), import of live broodstock is expected; some
401 import of juveniles is envisaged for grouper culture (3 OIE listed diseases for greasy grouper), which
402 would increase risk of pathogen introduction. Hence disease vulnerability is ranked intermediate for
403 these species (Table 5). Disease vulnerability is ranked low for seabreams with few OIE listed
404 diseases, where production takes place in many different sea cages and is hence not highly
405 concentrated.

406 For Atlantic salmon, a single RAS facility is expected to come into production in the next 5 years;
407 provided original stock is sourced free of OIE listed diseases, disease risk is likely low even though
408 many diseases have been OIE listed for salmon in colder climates. As Oman does not have endemic
409 salmonid species there is no risk of disease spread from wild populations. Moreover, disease spread
410 from RAS is inherently low (Peeler and Scott 2018). This situation could change if salmon production
411 would expand beyond a few, isolated RAS sites.

412 We emphasise that interpretation of our disease risk factors requires caution, as many other
413 potential factors could not be included here. These include the severity by which a single type of
414 pathogen may impact stock (which may range from a modest reduction in growth, to mass
415 mortalities in multiple farms); the speed by which pathogens may spread both within and across
416 farms; and the susceptibility of farmed species to diseases that are present in local, wild stocks.

417

418 **Table 5.** Proxies for *vulnerability to disease* (right-most column) for Oman aquaculture species, calculated as
 419 the average of three risk factors: (a) total number of OIE listed diseases per species (Peeler and Scott, 2018);
 420 (b) origin of broodstock, whether locally produced or imported; and (c) concentration of production in few or
 421 many farms. Number of OIE listed diseases combines the viral, bacterial and fungal diseases listed in
 422 Supplementary Table S1. Ranking of broodstock-related risk: 1, all stock derived from local broodstock (low
 423 risk of pathogen import); 2, stock derived partly from local, partly from imported broodstock (medium risk); 3,
 424 fully derived from imported broodstock (high risk of pathogen import). Risk ranking of concentration of
 425 production: 1, production spread over at least 5 farms (risk spread, hence lower); 2, production in 2-4 farms; 3,
 426 production in 1 farm only (risk concentrated, hence higher). Colour-shading indicates low to high risk.

Species group	Species	Number of OIE listed diseases	Local produce or import of broodstock	Concentration of production	Overall vulnerability to disease
Seabreams	Gilthead seabream <i>Sparus aurata</i>	1	1	1	1.0
	Sobaity seabream <i>Sparidentex hasta</i>	0	1	1	0.7
	Goldlined seabream <i>Rhabdosargus sarba</i>	1	1	1	1.0
Groupers	Yellowfin hind (grouper) <i>Cephalopholis hemistiktos</i>	0	2	2	1.3
	Greasy grouper <i>Epinephelus tauvina</i>	3	2	2	2.3
Asian seabass	Asian seabass <i>Lates calcarifer</i>	3	1	2	2.0
Amber-jacks	Japanese amberjack <i>Seriola quinqueradiata</i>	2	3	2	2.3
	Greater amberjack <i>Seriola dumerili</i>	2	3	2	2.3
	Yellowtail amberjack <i>Seriola lalandi</i>	2	3	2	2.3
Cobia	Cobia <i>Rachycentron canadum</i>	0		n.a.	n.a.
Red snapper	Red snapper <i>Lutjanus malabaricus</i>	0	1	3	1.3
Pompano	Scubnose pompano <i>Trachinotus blochii</i>	0	1	3	1.3
Atlantic salmon	Atlantic salmon <i>Salmo salar</i>	0 *)	1	3	2.0
Shrimp	Indian white prawn <i>Penaeus indicus</i>	1	2	1	1.3
	Whiteleg shrimp <i>Penaeus vannamei</i>	9	2	1	4.0
	Giant tiger prawn <i>Penaeus monodon</i>	9	2	1	4.0
Abalone	Oman abalone <i>Haliotis mariae</i>	3	1	1	1.7
Oyster	Hooded oyster <i>Saccostrea cucullata</i>	0		n.a.	n.a.
	Mangrove cupped oyster <i>Crassostrea rhizophorae</i>	0		n.a.	n.a.
Sea cucumber	Sandfish sea cucumber <i>Holothuria scabra</i>	0	1	2	1.0

427

428 3.5. Overall climate risk to aquaculture

429 Overall climate risk to aquaculture in Oman – combining thermal sensitivity, flooding exposure, low-
430 oxygen hazard and disease vulnerability – is highest for shrimp culture (Table 5; for a full description
431 of all component rankings by governorate, see Supplementary Table S2). This is due to (1) high
432 disease vulnerability, and (2) high exposure of coastal shrimp ponds to flooding or storm surge.
433 Flooding exposure is high in Ash Sharqiyah where shrimp culture is being started; it is lower for Al
434 Wusta but within this governorate, sites suitable to shrimp culture would typically be at low
435 elevation and flood risk will depend on the exact location of each facility. For *Penaeus indicus*,
436 overall risk is scored lower than for *P. vannamei* and *P. monodon* due to a smaller number of OIE
437 listed diseases, however as highlighted above, diseases in both other species have been investigated
438 far more extensively, and *P. indicus* is impacted by the important white spot disease. Hence overall
439 climate risk to *P. indicus* might be underestimated here.

440 Overall climate risk is also high in amberjacks cultured in sea cages, due to (1) exposure to pathogens
441 (with amberjacks being at risk from at least two OIE listed viral diseases) and (2) potential hazard
442 from low-oxygen levels (amberjacks being active swimmers with high oxygen demands). Low-oxygen
443 risk is higher in waters off Al Wusta, during the monsoon season impacted by the Arabian Sea
444 oxygen minimum zone. However, flooding exposure to cage-farming is low. Of the three amberjack
445 species, Japanese amberjack is at highest climate risk, owing to its cooler-water preferences and
446 therefore higher thermal sensitivity if reared in cage conditions in Omani waters.

447 Overall climate risk is fairly low for red snapper, pompano, sobaity and goldlined seabreams (Table
448 5), typically farmed in sea cages; each of these Indo-Pacific species has low thermal risk in Omani
449 waters, and as held in floating cages, are at low exposure to sea level rise or flooding, with limited
450 evidence of disease risk. However, overall climate risk is high for gilthead seabream, relating to
451 temperature affinities which are lower than typical sea temperatures in Oman. How different
452 components of risk may differently affect the overall climate risk is exemplified by the northernmost
453 governorate of Musandam where thermal risk to gilthead seabream is highest, but where risks from
454 flooding or storm surge and from low-oxygen levels are lowest; hence overall climate risk for
455 gilthead seabream aquaculture in Musandam emerges as lower than in other governorates.

456 Low climate risk was recorded for the two grouper species, yellowfin hind and greasy grouper. They
457 have been proposed for culture in RAS, which are inherently less impacted by ambient temperature
458 or other environmental conditions. Even so, both yellowfin hind and greasy grouper are well within
459 their natural temperature ranges in Omani waters, and hence would experience little thermal stress
460 if re-located outside. Moreover the fully isolated, RAS conditions make exposure to pathogens less
461 likely.

462 Omani abalone and sea cucumber aquaculture are characterised as low risk, partly due to these
463 species being within natural temperature ranges, especially within the governorates of Dhofar and Al
464 Wusta, respectively, where these species would be cultivated.

465 For aquaculture of Atlantic salmon in Oman, a fully controlled and isolated RAS system is proposed,
466 which would render salmon production relatively independent from ambient temperature or other
467 environmental conditions; this does, however, necessitate full temperature control given salmon's
468 cold-water requirements. This also makes the risk from pathogen introduction low, provided original
469 stock is safely sourced free of OIE listed diseases.

470 **Table 6.** Overall climate risks to aquaculture in Oman, as determined by the 4 component metrics (thermal
 471 sensitivity, exposure to flooding and storm surge, low-oxygen hazard, and disease vulnerability). Figures in
 472 bold indicate actual or planned developments.

Species group	Species	Overall climate risk					
		Musandam	Al Batinah	Muscat	Ash Sharqiyah	Al Wusta	Dhofar
Seabreams	Gilthead seabream <i>Sparus aurata</i>	0.33	0.39	0.46	0.49	0.51	0.48
	Sobaity seabream <i>Sparidentex hasta</i>	0.15	0.21	0.27	0.30	0.33	0.30
	Goldlined seabream <i>Rhabdosargus sarba</i>	0.17	0.23	0.29	0.32	0.35	0.32
Groupers	Yellowfin hind (grouper) <i>Cephalopholis hemistiktos</i>	0.14	0.26	0.29	0.27	0.23	0.15
	Greasy grouper <i>Epinephelus tauvina</i>	0.23	0.35	0.37	0.36	0.32	0.24
Asian seabass	Asian seabass <i>Lates calcarifer</i>	0.23	0.29	0.36	0.39	0.42	0.38
Amber-jacks	Japanese amberjack <i>Seriola quinqueradiata</i>	0.35	0.41	0.48	0.51	0.54	0.51
	Greater amberjack <i>Seriola dumerili</i>	0.27	0.33	0.40	0.43	0.46	0.42
	Yellowtail amberjack <i>Seriola lalandi</i>	0.28	0.34	0.41	0.44	0.47	0.44
Cobia	Cobia <i>Rachycentron canadum</i>	0.26	0.32	0.39	0.42	0.44	0.41
Red snapper	Red snapper <i>Lutjanus malabaricus</i>	0.18	0.24	0.31	0.34	0.37	0.34
Pompano	Scubnose pompano <i>Trachinotus blochii</i>	0.18	0.24	0.30	0.33	0.36	0.33
Atlantic salmon	Atlantic salmon <i>Salmo salar</i>	0.28	0.40	0.45	0.50	0.49	0.40
Shrimp	Indian white prawn <i>Penaeus indicus</i>	0.18	0.36	0.39	0.37	0.30	0.18
	Whiteleg shrimp <i>Penaeus vannamei</i>	0.38	0.56	0.59	0.57	0.51	0.38
	Giant tiger prawn <i>Penaeus monodon</i>	0.38	0.56	0.59	0.57	0.50	0.38
Abalone	Oman abalone <i>Haliotis mariae</i>	0.24	0.36	0.41	0.42	0.40	0.32
Oyster	Hooded oyster <i>Saccostrea cucullata</i>	0.21	0.26	0.29	0.27	0.25	0.22
	Mangrove cupped oyster <i>Crassostrea rhizophorae</i>	0.23	0.29	0.31	0.29	0.28	0.24
Sea cucumber	Sandfish sea cucumber <i>Holothuria scabra</i>	0.17	0.36	0.41	0.41	0.37	0.24

473

474

475 **4. Discussion**

476 **4.1. Aquaculture CRA: identifying and communicating climate risk**

477 This aquaculture CRA, the first for Oman, demonstrates the application of a flexible framework that
 478 identifies climate risks to the aquaculture sector. Importantly the CRA identified the overall climate
 479 risk level for different species, culture types and governorates, and for each the predominant
 480 components of climate risk. Identifying specific risk factors is important for developing targeted
 481 adaptation measures and building climate resilience into the planned expansion of the sector
 482 (MAFW, 2019). The four risk components applied here were selected based on understanding
 483 climate impacts specific to the region, and different or additional risk factors could be applied within
 484 the same CRA framework to allow wide geographic application.

485 Despite the growing global importance of aquaculture, few country-level climate vulnerability (CVA)
 486 or risk assessments (CRA) have been carried out that specifically focussed on aquaculture. Among
 487 the first were Doubleday et al. (2013), who evaluated climate vulnerability for aquaculture in
 488 Southeast Australia, reporting that species cultured from wild spat were particularly at risk, as
 489 opposed to species where all stages of culture are in controlled conditions. For various European
 490 countries, a combined aquaculture CVA has also been carried out (Kamermans et al., 2020), and this
 491 showed that individual countries, from Norway and Finland in the north, to several Mediterranean
 492 countries in the south, differed substantially in risk levels and risk components to their aquaculture
 493 sectors – mirroring the findings within one country of the present study.

494 The systematic yet simple approach of the CRA has an important advantage: not only can key
 495 climate risks be rapidly identified – acknowledging that estimating uncertainties around risk metrics
 496 remains difficult, and that weighting of risk components can influence overall risk estimates
 497 (Monnereau et al., 2017) – but the presentation of the results can be easily explained. This is
 498 important for (early) communication of climate risk to wider audiences, which is required for actual
 499 implementation of adaptation action. Stakeholders, whose buy-in to adaptation is required, range
 500 from the aquaculture farmers themselves to government and scientists. Indeed, these three
 501 stakeholder groups were present when the online workshop was held in December 2020, aimed at
 502 identifying adaptation options based on this study. Participants contributed their experience and
 503 knowledge of aquaculture in the region, to discuss adaptation options in the context of each of the
 504 key climate risks identified here. Below, key risks for each culture type in Oman are discussed (based
 505 on the risk assessment), along with potential adaptation options to counter each risk factor (based
 506 on the workshop, and supplemented with published information).

507 **4.2. Key risks and adaptation options: shrimp farming**

508 A significant finding was that the highest climate risk is for shrimp farming yet this is seen as a
 509 cornerstone for future aquaculture development in Oman. Key risks identified are (1) disease
 510 vulnerability – with 9 OIE listed diseases for *Penaeus vannamei* and *P. monodon*, and the most
 511 severe of these also present in *P. indicus* – and (2) exposure to flooding. The latter relates to shrimp
 512 pond culture being associated with low-lying terrain close to the sea (Al-Yahyai et al., 2004; Peeler
 513 and Scott, 2018).

514 Adaptation actions to counter disease vulnerability in shrimp farms should especially focus on
 515 *minimising the risk of introductions*, i.e. reducing impacts rather than mitigating consequences as
 516 there are no effective treatments for the most serious shrimp diseases (Lightner, 2012). This
 517 highlights the importance of pathogen-free production and isolation from environmental sources.
 518 Notwithstanding the need for prevention, the wide geographic distribution of shrimp diseases may

519 preclude the ability to entirely avoid disease outbreaks. In this case *preparedness to respond to*
520 *outbreaks* is critical to mitigating consequences in the event that an outbreak occurs (Stentiford et
521 al., 2012). Consequences of a disease outbreak can be further mitigated by spreading of shrimp
522 production across many smaller sites, rather than a single or few very large sites, and localising and
523 isolating disease outbreaks immediately, thus avoiding the entire sector from being impacted if an
524 outbreak were to occur in one facility (McLean et al. 2011). As an alternative to pond culture, shrimp
525 production in controllable indoor systems could be offered as a mitigation, with maintenance of
526 water quality and exclusion of pathogens aided by novel biofloc technology (where carbon:nitrogen
527 ratios in the system are balanced through microbial growth, so assimilating waste and enhancing
528 water quality and shrimp feeding conditions: Ahmad et al., 2017).

529 To counter the high exposure to flood risk, adaptation options include strategic selection of farming
530 sites where inundation risk is lower: this could be informed through flood risks maps (Al-Buloshi et
531 al., 2014; Al-Awadhi et al., 2017). An alternative option is the construction of storm-surge proof
532 infrastructure; elsewhere, increasing the heights of dikes was found to yield higher net benefits than
533 other flood adaptation measures in shrimp ponds (Seekao and Pharino, 2018). Non-structural flood
534 controls, such as early harvesting and shifting the crop calendar, are alternative measures for shrimp
535 farmers who lack financial supports (Seekao and Pharino, 2018). Adaptation options aimed at
536 mitigating consequences, include having insurance mechanisms in place that allow financial
537 compensation of losses if flooding were to occur (Nguyen et al., 2021).

538 **4.3. Key risks and adaptation options: cage farming for seabream and other fishes**

539 Climate risk is also high for the species currently cultivated in greatest quantities in Oman – gilthead
540 seabream. It is here driven by (1) thermal sensitivity and (2) low-oxygen hazard, and less by storm
541 surge exposure or disease risk. Overall lower climate risk for gilthead seabream was found for
542 northern than southern governorates, in spite of warmer mean temperatures further north (Table
543 6), and farming is already being achieved successfully there. Nevertheless, the thermal affinities of
544 gilthead seabream for cooler temperatures than ambient conditions where currently farmed,
545 indicate that production could be sub-optimal and current temperatures may be reaching an upper
546 limit. This warrants investigation of the culture potential of related native species, sobaity and
547 goldlined seabream, which are well within their thermal tolerance ranges in Omani waters (Pavlidis
548 and Mylonas, 2011) and may be more resilient to future temperature increases. Sobaity seabream is
549 cultured commercially in neighbouring United Arab Emirates (Basurco et al., 2011) indicating that
550 culturing is possible.

551 Therefore, potential adaptation actions to limit thermal risk to seabream farming include investing in
552 developing sobaity and goldlined seabream production and selection of gilthead seabream breeds
553 that are more temperature-resistant (Soto et al., 2018). An alternative, technical option is the use of
554 submersible cages (sunken to deeper, cooler waters) provided these are well aerated. Seasonal
555 stocking of giltheads (part RAS and part net pen) may be another alternative to avoid the highest-risk
556 periods.

557 The hazard of low-oxygen levels, greater in southern than northern governorates related with
558 proximity to naturally occurring hypoxia zones is not restricted to gilthead seabream (e.g.
559 Araújo-Luna et al., 2018) but equally relevant to other active-swimming fish species farmed in sea
560 cages (Vigen, 2008). Low dissolved oxygen makes it also harder for fish held in sea cages to cope
561 with high temperatures, and will reduce growth rates (Schurmann et al., 1991; Araújo-Luna et al.,
562 2018). An adaptation option is having effective aeration systems in place to enhance oxygenation of
563 cages during hypoxic periods (Berillis et al., 2016). Hypoxia risk could also be reduced through

564 considering site selection at a national scale and locating sites further north where hypoxia events
565 are less likely (Acharya and Panigrahi, 2016), or through analysis of local hydrodynamics to identify
566 local-scale areas with reduced hypoxia risk.

567 Locating sites in sheltered bays in the north, as in Musandam, would also minimise risks from storm-
568 related damages (Rafiq et al., 2015). An adaptation option aimed at improving preparedness, is
569 having early warning systems in place to inform on upcoming hypoxia events, storm surges, or
570 cyclones (Poulaine et al., 2018) that could trigger early harvesting or other response actions.

571 **4.4. Key risks and adaptation options: RAS culture – groupers and salmon**

572 For recirculating aquatic systems (RAS), climate risk is considered low (groupers) or fairly low
573 (Atlantic salmon (Table 6). This is due to the highly controlled culture conditions, which decouple
574 these systems from natural environmental fluctuations (Soto et al., 2018). Thus, thermal and low-
575 oxygen related risks are low. Nevertheless, backup power systems are required as temperatures
576 would soon be out of control if cooling failed in case of power shortages. Moreover, if RAS are
577 situated close to sea they are still prone to inundation (Table 3), and there is the need to manage
578 risks from disease vulnerability (Table 5).

579 RAS are, however, relatively expensive to run compared to cage or pond culture, so will mainly be
580 suitable for species with high price per kg (as in groupers; FAO, 2018). For planned culture of Atlantic
581 salmon, which have cold-water requirements (Elliott and Elliott, 2010), a single fully controlled and
582 refrigerated RAS is being envisaged, however refrigeration costs can be expensive and may increase
583 with increasing air temperatures. Therefore, adaptation options for salmon RAS could include cost-
584 benefit analysis (Poulain et al., 2018) and consideration of species with less cooling requirement.

585 Managing risks of disease introduction for RAS is as important as with other culture types, even
586 though the relative isolation from the marine environment reduces this risk. For Atlantic salmon,
587 many OIE listed diseases exist in cooler climates, but provided that egg imports come from a source
588 ensured to be free of OIE listed diseases, risk of further pathogen introduction will be very low, due
589 to the absence of wild salmon from Omani waters (Peeler and Scott, 2018). For culture of groupers
590 which do occur naturally in Oman, partial sourcing from wild stock is likely needed (Peeler and Scott,
591 2018). Adaptation options include having appropriate biosecurity, monitoring, and quarantine
592 protocols in place (Poulain et al., 2018; Peeler and Scott, 2018).

593 **4.5. Global relevance**

594 With growing demand for seafood products globally but limits to what capture fisheries can
595 sustainably supply, the importance of aquaculture to global nutritional demands is set to rise
596 (Jennings et al., 2016; Little et al., 2016; FAO, 2020; Shepon et al., 2021). This is in line with
597 aspirations in Oman to significantly expand aquaculture, to improve food security and local job
598 opportunities while aiming to enhance sustainability in fisheries and reduce pressure on wild stocks
599 (MAFW, 2019). With considerable climatic changes taking place and predicted for the region
600 (ROPME, 2020), considering climate risk is important for planning developments within the sector.

601 Climate risk to aquaculture was broken down into four risk components – thermal sensitivity, flood
602 exposure, low-oxygen hazard and disease vulnerability – assessed by species and (except disease
603 vulnerability) by sub-region. This approach can be equally applied to evaluate climate risks to
604 aquaculture for any other regional, national or sub-national location, although the components of
605 climate risks may need to be adjusted for different locations, aquaculture species or culture systems.
606 Many of the key risks identified here for Oman, such as high disease vulnerability and flooding

607 exposure for shrimp culture, are also important elsewhere (e.g. Bangladesh: Hooper et al., 2020;
608 Thailand: Seekao and Pharino, 2018), Moreover issues around thermal sensitivity as reported here
609 for gilthead seabream and salmon, will also apply to other cold-water species, traditionally cultured
610 at large scale in temperate countries but now beginning to be cultured in (sub)tropical regions
611 (Pavlidis and Mylonas, 2011).

612 If extended to other countries, possible improvements are the inclusion of other sources of risk not
613 accounted for in this study. Harmful algal blooms (HABs) are of particular concern for mussel and
614 oyster culture, potentially rendering products toxic for human consumption (Callaway et al., 2012).
615 Increasing frequency of HABs has been related to climate change interacting with eutrophication,
616 and has been noted in coastal, warm-water ecosystems (Martínez et al., 2017). In Omani waters,
617 occurrences of 'red tides' have become more frequent since monitoring began in the 1970s and
618 have been linked to (wild) fish kill incidents (Al Gheilani et al., 2011). If Oman's bivalve aquaculture,
619 currently limited to experimental culture of hooded and mangrove cupped oyster, were to be
620 expanded, early warning systems for HABs with communication to farms would be warranted
621 (Poulain et al., 2018). Inclusion of a HAB risk component would also be recommended if a similar
622 CRA were to be carried for a country where bivalve aquaculture is substantial (Theodorou et al.,
623 2020; Mardones et al., 2020). Other risk components to be considered, include droughts or excessive
624 rainfall; these factors are particularly important for freshwater aquaculture (Soto et al., 2018).

625 A screening-level risk assessment, such as carried out here provides guidance to scientists, resource
626 managers and stakeholders on how climate change is expected to impact the physiology, life cycles
627 and environment of aquaculture species and, ultimately, the way they are farmed. The study also
628 highlights knowledge gaps in aquaculture research across a broad range of farming systems;
629 outcomes from this assessment will focus attention towards the research required to underpin more
630 detailed quantitative assessments of higher-risk culture types, species and sites and thus more
631 optimal allocation of human and operational resources (Soho et al., 2018; Poulain et al., 2018; IPCC,
632 2019). Aquaculture production provides significant social, economic and nutritional benefits globally
633 (Little et al., 2016; Shepon et al., 2021). The methods presented provide a broadly applicable, cost-
634 effective and rapid approach not only to assess risk, but also to communicate risk to stakeholders
635 and facilitate the necessary dialogue on pathways to adaptation – elements that make these
636 methods relevant to many other regions around the world to build climate resilience in the global
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647 **Supplementary Materials.** Supplementary Table S1 provides an overview of all OIE listed diseases
648 for Oman current and candidate aquaculture species, based on Peeler and Scott (2018).
649 Supplementary Table S2 provides a break-down of all risk component scores by species and
650 governorate, with all metrics re-scaled between 0 (low risk) and 1 (high risk), used to calculate
651 overall climate risk.

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Supplementary Materials

Supplementary Table S1. Overview of OIE listed diseases for current or candidate Oman aquaculture species, based on the report by Peeler and Scott (2018) on development of aquatic animal health legislation for Oman. The total number of OIE listed diseases combines the viral, bacterial and fungal OIE listed diseases reported per species, where for each of the disease types, the fish or shellfish species potentially impacted are marked. The total *number of OIE listed diseases* per species is one of three component metrics, along with the metrics *concentration of production* and *local produce or import of broodstock*, used to quantify *overall disease vulnerability* (see Table 5).

Species	Number of OIE listed diseases	Viral											Bacterial			Fungal		
		Epizootic ulcerative syndrome	Grouper iridoviral disease	Megalocytivirus	Red seabream iridoviral disease	Viral encephalopathy and retinopathy	Infectious hypodermal, haematopoietic necrosis	Infectious myonecrosis virus	Taura syndrome virus	Viral covert mortality disease of shrimps	White spot disease	Yellow head virus	Abalone herpesvirus	Abalone shrivelling syndrome associated	Acute hepatopancreas necrosis	Necrotising hepatopancreatitis	Xenohaliotis californiensis	Hepatopancreatic microsporidiosis caused by Enterozoon
Gilthead seabream <i>Sparus aurata</i>	1					1												
Sobaity seabream <i>Sparidentex hasta</i>	0																	
Goldlined seabream <i>Rhabdosargus sarba</i>	1			1														
Yellowfin hind <i>Cephalopholis hemistiktos</i>	0																	
Greasy grouper <i>Epinephelus tauvina</i>	3		1		1	1												
Asian seabass <i>Lates calcarifer</i>	3	1			1	1												
Japanese amberjack <i>Seriola quinqueradiata</i>	2				1	1												
Greater amberjack <i>Seriola dumerili</i>	2				1	1												
Yellowtail amberjack <i>Seriola lalandi</i>	2				1	1												
Cobia <i>Rachycentron canadum</i>	0																	
Red snapper <i>Lutjanus malabaricus</i>	0																	
Scubnose pompano <i>Trachinotus blochii</i>	0																	
Atlantic salmon <i>Salmo salar</i>	0 *)																	
Indian white prawn <i>Penaeus indicus</i>	1									1								
Whiteleg shrimp <i>Penaeus vannamei</i>	9						1	1	1	1	1			1	1			1
Giant tiger prawn <i>Penaeus monodon</i>	9						1	1	1	1	1			1	1			1
Oman abalone <i>Haliotis mariae</i>	3											1	1			1		
Hooded oyster <i>Saccostrea cucullata</i>	0																	
Mangrove cupped oyster <i>Crassostrea rhizophorae</i>	0																	
Sandfish sea cucumber <i>Holothuria scabra</i>	0																	

Supplementary Table S1. Full break-down of all risk component scores by species and governorate, with all component metrics re-scaled between 0 (low risk) and 1 (high risk), used in combination to calculate overall climate risk. Light to dark red colour shading is indicative of low to high risk.

Species	Thermal sensitivity						Exposure to flooding and storm surge						Low-oxygen hazard						Disease vulnerability	Overall climate risk					
	Musandam	Al Batinah	Muscat	Ash Sharqiyah	Al Wusta	Dhofar	Musandam	Al Batinah	Muscat	Ash Sharqiyah	Al Wusta	Dhofar	Musandam	Al Batinah	Muscat	Ash Sharqiyah	Al Wusta	Dhofar	All governorates	Musandam	Al Batinah	Muscat	Ash Sharqiyah	Al Wusta	Dhofar
Gilthead seabream <i>Sparus aurata</i>	1.00	0.99	0.98	0.84	0.77	0.83	0.03	0.28	0.29	0.28	0.18	0.00	0.18	0.18	0.45	0.73	1.00	1.00	0.10	0.33	0.39	0.46	0.49	0.51	0.48
Sobaity seabream <i>Sparidentex hasta</i>	0.37	0.36	0.35	0.21	0.14	0.20	0.03	0.28	0.29	0.28	0.18	0.00	0.18	0.18	0.45	0.73	1.00	1.00	0.00	0.15	0.21	0.27	0.30	0.33	0.30
Goldlined seabream <i>Rhabdosargus sarba</i>	0.35	0.34	0.33	0.19	0.12	0.18	0.03	0.28	0.29	0.28	0.18	0.00	0.18	0.18	0.45	0.73	1.00	1.00	0.10	0.17	0.23	0.29	0.32	0.35	0.32
Yellowfin hind <i>Cephalopholis hemistiktos</i>	0.23	0.22	0.21	0.06	0.00	0.06	0.13	0.63	0.64	0.63	0.43	0.07	0.00	0.00	0.09	0.18	0.27	0.27	0.20	0.14	0.26	0.29	0.27	0.23	0.15
Greasy grouper <i>Epinephelus tauvina</i>	0.29	0.28	0.26	0.12	0.06	0.11	0.13	0.63	0.64	0.63	0.43	0.07	0.00	0.00	0.09	0.18	0.27	0.27	0.50	0.23	0.35	0.37	0.36	0.32	0.24
Asian seabass <i>Lates calcarifer</i>	0.31	0.30	0.29	0.15	0.08	0.14	0.03	0.28	0.29	0.28	0.18	0.00	0.18	0.18	0.45	0.73	1.00	1.00	0.40	0.23	0.29	0.36	0.39	0.42	0.38
Japanese amberjack <i>Seriola quinqueradiata</i>	0.70	0.68	0.67	0.53	0.47	0.52	0.03	0.28	0.29	0.28	0.18	0.00	0.18	0.18	0.45	0.73	1.00	1.00	0.50	0.35	0.41	0.48	0.51	0.54	0.51
Greater amberjack <i>Seriola dumerili</i>	0.37	0.36	0.35	0.21	0.14	0.20	0.03	0.28	0.29	0.28	0.18	0.00	0.18	0.18	0.45	0.73	1.00	1.00	0.50	0.27	0.33	0.40	0.43	0.46	0.42
Yellowtail amberjack <i>Seriola lalandi</i>	0.41	0.40	0.39	0.25	0.18	0.24	0.03	0.28	0.29	0.28	0.18	0.00	0.18	0.18	0.45	0.73	1.00	1.00	0.50	0.28	0.34	0.41	0.44	0.47	0.44
Cobia <i>Rachycentron canadum</i>	0.32	0.31	0.30	0.16	0.09	0.15	0.03	0.28	0.29	0.28	0.18	0.00	0.18	0.18	0.45	0.73	1.00	1.00	0.50	0.26	0.32	0.39	0.42	0.44	0.41
Red snapper <i>Lutjanus malabaricus</i>	0.31	0.30	0.29	0.15	0.09	0.14	0.03	0.28	0.29	0.28	0.18	0.00	0.18	0.18	0.45	0.73	1.00	1.00	0.20	0.18	0.24	0.31	0.34	0.37	0.34
Scubnose pompano <i>Trachinotus blochii</i>	0.29	0.28	0.27	0.13	0.06	0.12	0.03	0.28	0.29	0.28	0.18	0.00	0.18	0.18	0.45	0.73	1.00	1.00	0.20	0.18	0.24	0.30	0.33	0.36	0.33
Atlantic salmon <i>Salmo salar</i>	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.13	0.63	0.64	0.63	0.43	0.07	0.09	0.09	0.27	0.45	0.64	0.64	0.40	0.28	0.40	0.45	0.50	0.49	0.40
Indian white prawn <i>Penaeus indicus</i>	0.28	0.27	0.26	0.12	0.05	0.11	0.23	0.97	1.00	0.98	0.69	0.13	0.00	0.00	0.09	0.18	0.27	0.27	0.20	0.18	0.36	0.39	0.37	0.30	0.18
Whiteleg shrimp <i>Penaeus vannamei</i>	0.29	0.28	0.27	0.13	0.06	0.12	0.23	0.97	1.00	0.98	0.69	0.13	0.00	0.00	0.09	0.18	0.27	0.27	1.00	0.38	0.56	0.59	0.57	0.51	0.38
Giant tiger prawn <i>Penaeus monodon</i>	0.29	0.28	0.27	0.13	0.06	0.12	0.23	0.97	1.00	0.98	0.69	0.13	0.00	0.00	0.09	0.18	0.27	0.27	1.00	0.38	0.56	0.59	0.57	0.50	0.38
Oman abalone <i>Haliotis mariae</i>	0.44	0.43	0.42	0.28	0.21	0.27	0.13	0.63	0.64	0.63	0.43	0.07	0.09	0.09	0.27	0.45	0.64	0.64	0.30	0.24	0.36	0.41	0.42	0.40	0.32
Hooded oyster <i>Saccostrea cucullata</i>	0.29	0.28	0.27	0.13	0.06	0.12	0.03	0.28	0.29	0.28	0.18	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.09	0.18	0.27	0.27	0.50	0.21	0.26	0.29	0.27	0.25	0.22
Cupped oyster <i>Crassostrea rhizophorae</i>	0.37	0.36	0.35	0.21	0.15	0.20	0.03	0.28	0.29	0.28	0.18	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.09	0.18	0.27	0.27	0.50	0.23	0.29	0.31	0.29	0.28	0.24
Sandfish sea cucumber <i>Holothuria scabra</i>	0.27	0.26	0.25	0.11	0.05	0.10	0.23	0.97	1.00	0.98	0.69	0.13	0.09	0.09	0.27	0.45	0.64	0.64	0.10	0.17	0.36	0.41	0.41	0.37	0.24

Table 1. Overview of species included based on current and potential future importance for Oman aquaculture, including information on current or proposed culture type and projected production (based on Peeler and Scott 2018; supplementary data for cobia taken from Prins 2015). Price per kg and projected value are expressed in 2018-US\$ and based on mean global aquaculture price (from FAO Fisheries and Aquaculture Statistics). Projected value by 2023 is based on projected production (Peeler and Scott 2018). Figures on future production should only be seen as indicative of proposed future development.

Species group	Species	Type of culture	Projected production (t)	Price/kg (US\$)	Projected value (US\$)	Regions
Seabreams	Gilthead seabream <i>Sparus aurata</i>	Marine cages; RAS	15500	\$4.73	\$143,500,000	Musandam, Muscat, Ash Sharqiyah
	Sobaity seabream <i>Sparidentex hasta</i>			\$13.25		Musandam, Muscat, Ash Sharqiyah
	Goldlined seabream <i>Rhabdosargus sarba</i>			\$9.79		Musandam, Muscat, Ash Sharqiyah
Groupers	Yellowfin hind (grouper) <i>Cephalopholis hemistiktos</i>	RAS	9000	\$18.59	\$167,300,000	not specified
	Greasy grouper <i>Epinephelus tauvina</i>			\$18.59		not specified
Asian seabass	Asian seabass (Barramundi) <i>Lates calcarifer</i>	Marine cages	2500	\$4.52	\$11,300,000	not specified
Amberjacks	Japanese amberjack <i>Seriola quinqueradiata</i>	Marine cages	2000	\$7.77	\$19,660,000	Muscat, Ash Sharqiyah, Al Wusta
	Greater amberjack <i>Seriola dumerili</i>			\$9.10		Muscat, Ash Sharqiyah, Al Wusta
	Yellowtail amberjack <i>Seriola lalandi</i>			\$12.62		Muscat, Ash Sharqiyah, Al Wusta
Cobia	Cobia <i>Rachycentron canadum</i>	Marine cages		\$2.83		not specified
Red snapper	Red snapper (Hamra) <i>Lutjanus malabaricus</i>	Marine cages	100	\$6.62	\$662,000	not specified

Pompano	Scubnose pompano <i>Trachinotus blochii</i>	Marine cages	100	\$4.77	\$477,000	not specified
Atlantic salmon	Atlantic salmon <i>Salmo salar</i>	RAS	20000	\$7.07	\$141,400,000	not specified
Shrimp	Indian white prawn <i>Penaeus indicus</i>	Shrimp ponds	130000	\$4.92	\$840,700,000	Ash Sharqiyah, Al Wusta
	Whiteleg shrimp <i>Penaeus vannamei</i>			\$6.09		Ash Sharqiyah, Al Wusta
	Giant tiger prawn <i>Penaeus monodon</i>			\$8.39		Ash Sharqiyah, Al Wusta
Abalone	Oman abalone <i>Haliotis mariae</i>	RAS and restocking	2000	\$11.30	\$22,600,000	Dhofar
Oyster	Hooded oyster <i>Saccostrea cucullata</i>			\$10.31		not specified
	Mangrove cupped oyster <i>Crassostrea rhizophorae</i>			\$1.00		not specified
Sea cucumber	Sandfish sea cucumber <i>Holothuria scabra</i>	Marine ponds and raceways restocking	2000	\$5.27	\$10,540,000	Al Wusta

Table 2. Risk from *thermal sensitivity*. The ‘maximum preferred temperatures’ (TP90) for 20 target or candidate aquaculture species in Oman, as well as – shown separately for each governorate – the ‘thermal safety margins.’ Annual mean SST for coastal waters adjacent to each governorate is indicated (bottom of table). Thermal safety margins are defined as the difference between a species’ TP90 and governorate’s SST, in °C (TP90 – SST), colour-coded from blue to red (low to high risk). Figures in bold indicate actual or planned developments. *Note:* for Atlantic salmon, which in Oman is planned to be cultured in fully temperature-controlled RAS, thermal sensitivity margins are shown but no risk-based colour-shading applied.

Species group	Species	Maximum preferred temperature (TP90, °C)	Species' thermal sensitivity margin by governorate (annual mean SST in °C above TP90)					
			Musan-dam	Al Batinah	Muscat	Ash Sharqiyah	Al Wusta	Dhofar
Seabreams	Gilthead seabream <i>Sparus aurata</i>	21.44	-7.42	-7.31	-7.18	-5.66	-4.96	-5.57

	Sobaity seabream <i>Sparidentex hasta</i>	28.24	-0.62	-0.51	-0.38	1.14	1.84	1.23
	Goldlined seabream <i>Rhabdosargus sarba</i>	28.43	-0.43	-0.32	-0.19	1.33	2.03	1.42
Groupers	Yellowfin hind (grouper) <i>Cephalopholis hemistiktos</i>	29.77	0.91	1.02	1.15	2.67	3.37	2.76
	Greasy grouper <i>Epinephelus tauvina</i>	29.15	0.29	0.40	0.53	2.05	2.75	2.14
Asian seabass	Asian seabass <i>Lates calcarifer</i>	28.89	0.03	0.14	0.27	1.79	2.49	1.88
Amber-jacks	Japanese amberjack <i>Seriola quinqueradiata</i>	24.73	-4.13	-4.02	-3.89	-2.37	-1.67	-2.28
	Greater amberjack <i>Seriola dumerili</i>	28.23	-0.63	-0.52	-0.39	1.13	1.83	1.22
	Yellowtail amberjack <i>Seriola lalandi</i>	27.79	-1.07	-0.96	-0.83	0.69	1.39	0.78
Cobia	Cobia <i>Rachycentron canadum</i>	28.77	-0.09	0.02	0.15	1.67	2.37	1.76
Red snapper	Red snapper <i>Lutjanus malabaricus</i>	28.84	-0.02	0.09	0.22	1.74	2.44	1.83
Pompano	Scubnose pompano <i>Trachinotus blochii</i>	29.12	0.26	0.37	0.50	2.02	2.72	2.11
Atlantic salmon	Atlantic salmon <i>Salmo salar</i>	12.77	(-16.09)	(-15.98)	(-15.85)	(-14.33)	(-13.63)	(-14.24)
Shrimp	Indian white prawn <i>Penaeus indicus</i>	29.18	0.32	0.43	0.56	2.08	2.78	2.17
	Whiteleg shrimp <i>Penaeus vannamei</i>	29.08	0.22	0.33	0.46	1.98	2.68	2.07
	Giant tiger prawn <i>Penaeus monodon</i>	29.10	0.24	0.35	0.48	2.00	2.70	2.09
Abalone	Oman abalone <i>Haliotis mariae</i>	27.50	-1.36	-1.25	-1.12	0.40	1.10	0.49
Oyster	Hooded oyster <i>Saccostrea cucullata</i>	29.12	0.26	0.37	0.50	2.02	2.72	2.11
	Mangrove cupped oyster <i>Crassostrea rhizophorae</i>	28.19	-0.67	-0.56	-0.43	1.09	1.79	1.18

Sea cucumber	Sandfish sea cucumber <i>Holothuria scabra</i>	29.27	0.41	0.52	0.65	2.17	2.87	2.26
Annual mean SST by governorate (°C)			28.86	28.75	28.62	27.10	26.40	27.01

Table 3. Relative exposure to *flooding and storm surge*, assessed for Oman key aquaculture species or species groups by governorate. For each species, *sensitivity to flooding* is scored (1 low, 3 high) based on culture type and biological characteristics. For each governorate, *flooding hazard* is scored (bottom row) based on the area predicted to be flooded if mean sea level rises by 0.2 m (Al-Buloshi et al., 2014) per km of coastline. Relative exposure per species and governorate is then calculated as *sensitivity x hazard*. Colour-shading indicates low (light) to high exposure (dark red). Figures in bold indicate actual or planned developments.

Species or species group	Sensitivity to flooding	Species' relative exposure by governorate					
		Musandam	Al Batinah	Muscat	Ash Sharqiyah	Al Wusta	Dhofar
Seabreams	1	0.07	0.25	0.26	0.25	0.18	0.05
Groupers	2	0.14	0.50	0.51	0.50	0.36	0.10
Asian seabass	1	0.07	0.25	0.26	0.25	0.18	0.05
Amberjacks	1	0.07	0.25	0.26	0.25	0.18	0.05
Cobia	1	0.07	0.25	0.26	0.25	0.18	0.05
Red snapper	1	0.07	0.25	0.26	0.25	0.18	0.05
Pompano	1	0.07	0.25	0.26	0.25	0.18	0.05
Atlantic salmon	2	0.14	0.50	0.51	0.50	0.36	0.10
Shrimp	3	0.21	0.75	0.77	0.75	0.54	0.14
Oman abalone	2	0.14	0.50	0.51	0.50	0.36	0.10
Oysters	1	0.07	0.25	0.26	0.25	0.18	0.05
Sea cucumber	3	0.21	0.75	0.77	0.75	0.54	0.14
Inundated area (km²) with sea level rise 0.2 m		35	60	50	120	105	25
Coastline (km)		495	241	196	480	584	523

Flooding hazard: inundated area (km²) per km of coastline with sea level rise 0.2 m	0.07	0.25	0.26	0.25	0.18	0.05
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Table 4. Relative hazard from *low-oxygen levels in seawater*, assessed for Oman key aquaculture species or species groups by governorate. For each species, *sensitivity to low-oxygen risk* is scored (1 low, 3 high) based on culture type and biological characteristics. For each governorate, *low-oxygen hazard* is scored (1 low, 4 high), based on geographical patterns in duration and intensity of low-oxygen conditions linked to the Arabian Sea oxygen minimum zone (Acharya and Panigrahi, 2016; Piontkovski and Queste, 2016; Queste et al., 2018). Relative hazard per species and governorate is then calculated as *sensitivity x hazard*. Colour-shading indicates low (light) to high hazard (dark red).

Species or species group	Sensitivity to low-oxygen risk	Species' relative hazard by governorate					
		Musandam	Al Batinah	Muscat	Ash Sharqiyah	Al Wusta	Dhofar
Seabreams	3	3	3	6	9	12	12
Groupers	1	1	1	2	3	4	4
Asian seabass	3	3	3	6	9	12	12
Amberjacks	3	3	3	6	9	12	12
Cobia	3	3	3	6	9	12	12
Red snapper	3	3	3	6	9	12	12
Pompano	3	3	3	6	9	12	12
Atlantic salmon	2	2	2	4	6	8	8
Shrimp	1	1	1	2	3	4	4
Oman abalone	2	2	2	4	6	8	8
Oysters	1	1	1	2	3	4	4
Sea cucumber	2	2	2	4	6	8	8
Low-oxygen hazard by governorate		1	1	2	3	4	4

Table 5. Proxies for *vulnerability to disease* (right-most column) for Oman aquaculture species, calculated as the average of three risk factors: (a) total number of OIE listed diseases per species (Peeler and Scott, 2018); (b) origin of broodstock, whether locally produced or imported; and (c) concentration of production in few or many farms. Number of OIE listed diseases combines the viral, bacterial and fungal diseases listed in Supplementary Table S1. Ranking of broodstock-related risk: 1, all stock derived from local broodstock (low risk of pathogen import); 2, stock derived partly from local, partly from imported broodstock (medium risk); 3, fully derived from imported broodstock (high risk of pathogen import). Risk ranking of concentration of production: 1, production spread over at least 5 farms (risk spread, hence lower); 2, production in 2-4 farms; 3, production in 1 farm only (risk concentrated, hence higher). Colour-shading indicates low to high risk.

Species group	Species	Number of OIE listed diseases	Local produce or import of broodstock	Concentration of production	Overall vulnerability to disease
Seabreams	Gilthead seabream <i>Sparus aurata</i>	1	1	1	1.0
	Sobaity seabream <i>Sparidentex hasta</i>	0	1	1	0.7
	Goldlined seabream <i>Rhabdosargus sarba</i>	1	1	1	1.0
Groupers	Yellowfin hind (grouper) <i>Cephalopholis hemistiktos</i>	0	2	2	1.3
	Greasy grouper <i>Epinephelus tauvina</i>	3	2	2	2.3
Asian seabass	Asian seabass <i>Lates calcarifer</i>	3	1	2	2.0
Amber-jacks	Japanese amberjack <i>Seriola quinqueradiata</i>	2	3	2	2.3
	Greater amberjack <i>Seriola dumerili</i>	2	3	2	2.3
	Yellowtail amberjack <i>Seriola lalandi</i>	2	3	2	2.3
Cobia	Cobia <i>Rachycentron canadum</i>	0		n.a.	n.a.
Red snapper	Red snapper <i>Lutjanus malabaricus</i>	0	1	3	1.3

Pompano	Scubnose pompano <i>Trachinotus blochii</i>	0	1	3	1.3
Atlantic salmon	Atlantic salmon <i>Salmo salar</i>	0 *)	1	3	2.0
Shrimp	Indian white prawn <i>Penaeus indicus</i>	1	2	1	1.3
	Whiteleg shrimp <i>Penaeus vannamei</i>	9	2	1	4.0
	Giant tiger prawn <i>Penaeus monodon</i>	9	2	1	4.0
Abalone	Oman abalone <i>Haliotis mariae</i>	3	1	1	1.7
Oyster	Hooded oyster <i>Saccostrea cucullata</i>	0		n.a.	n.a.
	Mangrove cupped oyster <i>Crassostrea rhizophorae</i>	0		n.a.	n.a.
Sea cucumber	Sandfish sea cucumber <i>Holothuria scabra</i>	0	1	2	1.0

Table 6. Overall climate risks to aquaculture in Oman, as determined by the 4 component metrics (thermal sensitivity, exposure to flooding and storm surge, low-oxygen hazard, and disease vulnerability). Figures in bold indicate actual or planned developments.

Species group	Species	Overall climate risk					
		Musandam	Al Batinah	Muscat	Ash Sharqiyah	Al Wusta	Dhofar
Seabreams	Gilthead seabream <i>Sparus aurata</i>	0.33	0.39	0.46	0.49	0.51	0.48
	Sobaity seabream <i>Sparidentex hasta</i>	0.15	0.21	0.27	0.30	0.33	0.30

	Goldlined seabream <i>Rhabdosargus sarba</i>	0.17	0.23	0.29	0.32	0.35	0.32
Groupers	Yellowfin hind (grouper) <i>Cephalopholis hemistiktos</i>	0.14	0.26	0.29	0.27	0.23	0.15
	Greasy grouper <i>Epinephelus tauvina</i>	0.23	0.35	0.37	0.36	0.32	0.24
Asian seabass	Asian seabass <i>Lates calcarifer</i>	0.23	0.29	0.36	0.39	0.42	0.38
Amber-jacks	Japanese amberjack <i>Seriola quinqueradiata</i>	0.35	0.41	0.48	0.51	0.54	0.51
	Greater amberjack <i>Seriola dumerili</i>	0.27	0.33	0.40	0.43	0.46	0.42
	Yellowtail amberjack <i>Seriola lalandi</i>	0.28	0.34	0.41	0.44	0.47	0.44
Cobia	Cobia <i>Rachycentron canadum</i>	0.26	0.32	0.39	0.42	0.44	0.41
Red snapper	Red snapper <i>Lutjanus malabaricus</i>	0.18	0.24	0.31	0.34	0.37	0.34
Pompano	Scubnose pompano <i>Trachinotus blochii</i>	0.18	0.24	0.30	0.33	0.36	0.33
Atlantic salmon	Atlantic salmon <i>Salmo salar</i>	0.28	0.40	0.45	0.50	0.49	0.40
Shrimp	Indian white prawn <i>Penaeus indicus</i>	0.18	0.36	0.39	0.37	0.30	0.18
	Whiteleg shrimp <i>Penaeus vannamei</i>	0.38	0.56	0.59	0.57	0.51	0.38
	Giant tiger prawn <i>Penaeus monodon</i>	0.38	0.56	0.59	0.57	0.50	0.38
Abalone	Oman abalone <i>Haliotis mariae</i>	0.24	0.36	0.41	0.42	0.40	0.32
Oyster	Hooded oyster <i>Saccostrea cucullata</i>	0.21	0.26	0.29	0.27	0.25	0.22
	Mangrove cupped oyster <i>Crassostrea rhizophorae</i>	0.23	0.29	0.31	0.29	0.28	0.24
Sea cucumber	Sandfish sea cucumber <i>Holothuria scabra</i>	0.17	0.36	0.41	0.41	0.37	0.24

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